A public value approach to collaborative governance implementation in South African municipalities

Professor Frederik Martin Uys
School of Public Leadership
Stellenbosch University
Stellenbosch
South Africa
fmu@spl.sun.ac.za

and

Fakier Jessa
Doctoral candidate
School of Public Leadership
Stellenbosch University
Stellenbosch
South Africa
fakierj@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The form of governance which prevails in the bureaucratic-hierarchical apparatus of South African municipalities, is characterised by fragmented departmentalism (silos), an inflexible administration, fractured relationships with communities and stakeholders, a skew political-administrative interface and resistance to systemic transformation. Such governance attributes discourages (i) open dialogue with communities and stakeholders, (ii) bottom-up innovation and (iii) responsiveness to citizens' needs, demands and expectations. 'Corporate', 'cooperative' and 'good' governance forms struggle to flourish in municipal environments, exuding unique, inwardly focused institutional constraints relative to most needed effective, accountable and inclusive governance practice and policy.

This paper proposes an integrated public service system (IPSS) and the generation of public value (PV), as means to achieve effective, accountable and inclusive governance, focussing on (i) community common objectives, i.e. public interest and public purpose, (ii) stakeholder teams and integrative leaders, operating in a defined, distributive (integrated) network and (iii) collaborative governance, which embrace collaboration between stakeholders as a vehicle for integration, systemic transformation and effectiveness in service delivery.

Collaborative governance encompasses the structural and functional aspects of effective, accountable and integrated practices, only when contained a nonlinear system (an IPSS), in synchrony with the propagation of inclusiveness, feedback, efficiency, efficacy, equilibrium, equity, viability, legitimacy, adaptation and sustainability. Collaborative governance is appropriate for municipal engagement with stakeholders, given (i) communities and their support stakeholder teams are engaged in locally based programmes and projects, (ii) civic education for community enablement is prioritised as a primary, inclusive and engagement mechanism, (iii) a viable means to assure continuous focus on the satisfaction of community needs, demands and expectations, social progress, quality of livelihood, quality of life standards, liveability (environmental sustainability) is devised and (iv) the delivery of tangible and nontangible goods and services, i.e. PV, by municipalities to communities is generated.

The generation of PV, which involves whole communities, compels the utilisation of collaborative governance in assuring the achievement of accountability, oversight, feedback, inclusivity and transparency in measuring performance outputs, outcomes, adaptation to

transformative change and sustainability in generating stable communities. This paper will deal with the critical importance of collaborative governance at the municipal level, the theoretical genesis of PV and similarly, the IPSS. In addition, results from a study conducted by the authors, will show a willingness among senior managers (in 15 municipalities in South Africa) to implement collaborative governance as a daily practice.

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

This paper will explain effective, accountable and inclusive governance in an open, nonlinear, network based collaborative governance 'systems' paradigm. The paper will also deal with the important components of collaborative governance as it pertains to an integrated public service system (IPSS), collaborative management and implementation, i.e. public value (PV) generation, in contrast to the inward focus of prevailing 'corporate governance' prevalent in municipalities. While premises and suppositions in corporate governance may be applied to public interest and public purpose, municipalities are prone to adopt a conventional inward approach to governance practice; hence a logical demand arises for the institutionalisation (in municipalities) of collaborative governance from a 'systems' frame of reference.

As the municipality (local council) is the 'closest' government entity to the community, it is ideally situated to be a network 'hub' for local programme and projects implementation, i.e. for the generation of PV, justified in terms of (i) common stakeholder objectives, (ii) broad socio economic goals such as quality of livelihood, work, social progress and (iii) the development of standards for the enhancement of quality of life (wellbeing), which overlaps with the United Nations Agenda 2030 (UN Agenda 2030). An IPSS generating PV, it may be argued, is the appropriate vehicle for driving the implementation of collaborative governance in municipalities.

Collaborative governance has particular reference to municipalities in South Africa, in terms of (i) its broad definition, (ii) PV generation in the collaborative (development) domain, (iii) the IPSS theoretical bases, (iv) contributions from complexity science that aid collaborative relations between stakeholders operating in the IPSS, in addressing common objectives, (v) mitigating constraining factors relative to the practice of collaborative governance (vi) the types of governance currently employed, and (vii) imperatives for strategic accomplishments in respect of development.

2 Paradigm shift to collaborative governance

The elements of collaborative governance are intrinsic to the elements of the integrated public service system (IPSS), generating public value (PV), illustrated in Figure 1, page 4; a paradigm shift from the current adherence to 'corporate' and 'good' governance to collaborative governance, is becoming increasingly necessary. The Weberian approach to municipal

governance is not appropriate in the 4th industrial epoch where emphasis have shifted to demands from citizens' agencies for openness, effectiveness, accountability and inclusivity. Demands for quality and quantity of products (such as housing) and services from municipalities, i.e. tangible PV, as well as nontangible PV, such as wellbeing, security and personal safety, are being levelled by communities at the lower end of the socio-economic spectrum. Communities are demanding genuine engagement with municipalities (Grollman 2012), hence the critical need for collaborative governance in municipalities.

In respect of collaborative governance, the Weberian elements of internal control and hierarchical discipline may have some advantages, however it is not void of characteristics such as fragmentation, silo-ism, inward focus, power distances, power dependence, inflexible institutional culture and suppression of voice and creativity, factors which negate good governance ethos in municipalities. Currently, municipalities in South Africa are confounded by governance issues and hover between corporate, good and cooperative governance types, which are internally focused and which contain poor rationale for distancing municipalities from communities. Municipal governance practice currently stands disengaged from community involvement in local programmes and projects.

3. Definitions of collaborative governance

Stoker (1998:18) defines collaborative governance as the means employed by stakeholders within and external to government to address (i) transversal boundaries and responsibilities in respect of socio-economic developmental issues, (ii) power distances and power dependencies in relationships between institutions of state in the services they render to citizens, (iii) self-governing, integrated, nonlinear networks and (iv) a modern emerging and evolving axiology (e.g. PV generation) of non-fragmented governance.

The UN Agenda 2030, goal 17, defines collaborative governance as: "a successful sustainable development agenda", involving "partnerships between governments, the private sector and civil society". By definition, there is a shift towards inclusivity, partnerships, shared vision and a common agenda which place communities at the centre of development, regionally and locally.

The network approach to collaborative governance connects a wide array of network stakeholders, public and private, who act as managers taking processes to actualisation. Niemi-

Iilahti (in Klijn 2003) holds that governance is best practiced utilising consensus on issues between local councils, government, non-government organisations (NGOs) and citizens. In networks, responsiveness and flexibility are key governance ingredients for cooperation, coordination and collaboration between stakeholders (Uys and Jessa 2016:197).

Nealer and Naude (2011:105-109) holds that co-operative governance is vital for "effective" sustainable development given the interdisciplinary (social, economic and environmental) nature of basic material and social needs. Nabatchi (2017:29) presents a table of four categories of PV (the political, legal, organisational and the market) which are applicable areas of management and governance, defined in terms of a collaborative governance regime. She argues further, that in an age of complexity and fourth generation technical advancements, it is incumbent upon municipal officials to apply governance methodology in a transformational, systemic, integrative and collaborative manner.

O'Leary, Gerard, Keast, Mandell and Voets (2015:754-755) hold that collaboration facilitates trust relationships between network stakeholders which may increase the success rate of programmes and projects as combined knowledge, information and resources are utilised to achieve a positive influence on outcomes. The authors recommend that an initial scanning of the collaboration environment will increase the incidence of successful collaboration between stakeholders in the fulfilment of 'common objectives'. O' Leary and Vij (2012:518) hold that while government management is "highly fragmented" in current government departments, the future holds promise for the initiation and implementation of integrated networks of stakeholders who are open to collaboration in respect of achieving commonalities, such as found in PV generation.

At the level of the community, evaluative 'action' research, conducted by Bartels (2018:1322), demonstrates that (i) engagement with local groups have a positive effect on collaborative processes, (ii) the 'inclusive' approach can be successfully applied, (iii) relationships between opposing groups and local councils improved; these results impacted positively on social relations, i.e. "socio-spatial deprivation" in Amsterdam (Netherlands) working class communities. Success attained in this manner does not imply that collaborative exchanges are always successful. Results from Bartels' study indicate that involvement with collaborative approaches in communities do carry risk of collapse, hence ongoing perseverance is necessary between stakeholders.

Ansell and Gash (2007:550) confirm the democratic principles on which a collaborative governance implementation framework should be built. The authors hold that "broad variables" essential for the collaborative governance processes (and practice) are trust building, shared ownerships and commitment, shared understanding, small transformable wins and open dialogue. Systems where genuine engagement is required, i.e. inclusiveness, effectiveness and accountability, warrants collaboration, monitoring, evaluation and feedback as pivotal aspects of collaborative governance.

4. The IPSS as an appropriate vehicle for collaborative governance

An IPSS provides an alternative (or complimentary) public sector reform model to hierarchy, authority, linear and inwardly focused institutional practices in municipalities. An IPSS is eclectically formulated, utilising the elements of open, self-organising naturally evolving nonlinear systems and holism to foster interdependency and interconnectivity between stakeholders, given in Figure 1. An IPSS generates PV as 'systemic' outputs, outcomes, adaptation and sustainability. The IPSS utilises the elements given in Figure 1, as the means for achieving PV generation, co-regulation and co-creation of PV by network stakeholders, which includes the community and the municipality as equal stakeholders. The principles of equity, efficacy, balance (stability, equilibrium), collaboration, feedback and relationships of trust may then apply between stakeholders (Emersen and Nabatchi 2015).

Figure 1: Elements of an IPSS and PV generation
Source: Authors.

4.1 IPSS theoretical bases

An IPSS incorporates six theoretical bases, as follows:

- Open systems theory, developed by, among others, Von Bertalanffy (1968); Granovetter (1983); Best, Greenhalgh, Lewis, Saul, Carroll and Bitz (2012), Brown and Lerch 2007 and Prigogine and Stengers, (1984).
- Complexity science, based on the work of Mitleton-Kelly (2003) who established paths for understanding co-evolving organisations, uncertainty, unpredictability and opportunities for adaptation and equilibrium (co-regulation).
- Network theory, which holds solutions for systemic transformation and integration, based on writing from Burt (1992), Baran (2003), Provan and Milward (1995), Scott, J (2000); Barabási and Frangos (2002), Stoker (2006) and Talbot (2008).
- Complex adaptive systems, illuminated by (Davis and Nicolic 2008) explores automatic expanding, co-evolving, co-regulated intractable systems.
- Actor network theory (Latour 1996 and Fenwick 2011) which imparts clarity on how matter and being is understood.
- The collaborative governance component of the IPSS was advanced by, among others, Ghoshal (2005), Ansell and Gash (2007), Barsh (2008), Mintzberg (1983) and (1996), among others, advanced the theory and application thereof. Emersen and Nabatchi (2015) developed the collaborative governance regime (CGR), an indispensable tool for managing collaborative governance performance.

4.2 Effective, accountable and inclusive governance as the mode of IPSS operativity

Effective, accountable and inclusive governance has direct bearing on IPSS operativity and the manner in which PV outputs, outcomes, adaptation and sustainability is generated. The collaborative governance regime (CGR), given in Figure 2, can be appropriately utilised in an IPSS for the management and measurement of effectiveness, efficiency, efficacy and equitable distribution of resources and information (Emersen and Nabatchi 2015). The CGR is also a learning tool for stakeholders, enabling understanding and feedback in relation to effectiveness, efficiency, efficacy, equity, adaptation and sustainable development execution. The CGR facilitates new learning and the transfer of learning, given that, as a coordinated process the CGR is adaptable to e-governance, stimulating collaboration, a feedback process, enablement of stakeholders and accountability.

	Unit of Analysis		
Performance Levels	**Participant Organisation**	**Collaborative Governance Regime**	**Target Goals**
Level One Actions and Outputs	Efficiency	Efficacy	Equity
Level Two Outcomes	Effectiveness	External Legitimacy	Effectiveness
Level Three Adaptation	Equilibrium	Viability	Sustainability

Figure 2: The Collaborative Governance Regime (CGR)
Source: Emersen and Nabatchi (2015:723)

4.3 Institutionalisation of good practice

The institutionalisation of good practices in municipalities for the attainment of effective, inclusive and accountable relationships with stakeholders concerning programme and project engagement, demands the authority and oversight (utilising the CGR) for (i) clarity of the objectives, (ii) equity among stakeholders, (iii) effective monitoring and evaluation (iv) rudimentary consensus among stakeholders and (v) commitment of officials in the spheres of government to commonalities relative to strategic intention and direction (Figure 4 applies). In addition, the implementation of the CGR in municipalities entail (i) the initiation of an IPSS to ensure synchrony with collaborative governance elements (in Figure 1), (ii) the generation of PV and the evaluation of tangible and nontangible outputs, outcomes, adaptation to change and sustainable development, (iii) civic education programmes and (iv) the implementation of the CGR. Latour (1996), in developing actor network theory (ANT), holds that the interconnectedness between objects and people, i.e. the four constructs above, are inseparable and essential for understanding the holistic approach in the generation of PV.

4.4 Importance of the UN Agenda 2030 for collaborative governance

The UN Agenda 2030 holds significance for the emergence of collaborative governance in South African municipalities, for the following reasons: (i) the Agenda (2030) has been formulated, ratified and implemented by an international assembly of scholars, experts, and therefore has high validity, (ii) the international community is tasked with the responsibility for its implementation, (iii) it is the best example of collaborative governance 'relevancy' a municipality can aspire to given the body of socio-economic, educational and environmental demands. A municipality may align its integrated development plans (IDP) agenda (in the South African context) with this body of 'common' expectations as there is little question regarding its strategic intention for the advancement of social progress and quality of life of

the most vulnerable groups in society. The survey (Jessa 2017) results indicate that 93% support was forthcoming from respondents (senior managers in municipalities) for a common agenda which serves as a guide for effective public engagement. However in South Africa, municipal top managers need to be guided by fewer regulatory mechanisms (narrow focus) which dampen openness for innovation, holistic and universal approaches to development and collaboration on a global scale.

5. Public value (PV) approach to collaborative governance

The generation of PV (guided by public purpose and public interest) in both tangible and nontangible forms of public products and services to citizens, necessitate a holistic (interdisciplinary) approach to human development, in synchrony with broad socio-economic objectives (captured by the UN Agenda 2030) and contained in the 'systems' paradigm. PV cannot be comprehensively generated by Weberian (structural- functionalist) models of government and governance as these are based on principles of hierarchy and authoritarianism, mainly the antithesis of open, flexible and nonlinear systems, i.e. elements of an IPSS. One argues therefore that co-regulation and co-creation processes are nontangible forms of PV.

Public value theory was advanced (among others) by Moore (1995, 2003 and 2012), Moore and Khagram (2004), Moore and Benington (2010), Blaug, Horner and Lekhi (2006), Bozeman (2007) and (2009); Bozeman and Sarewitz (2005), Stoker (2006); Talbot (2008), Bozeman and Johnson (2015), Meynhardt (2009) and Jessa and Uys (2018). Meynhardt (2009) classifies intangible PV as comprised of (i) moral-ethical attributes, (ii) the need for aesthetically pleasant environments, (iii) utilitarian and purpose driven engagement among network stakeholders and (iv) 'political-social' aspirations as drivers of equality and social innovation among citizens.

The theoretical PV bases developed by the scholars cited above, have direct bearing on the quality of livelihood (work, sustenance and social progress) and the development of standards for the enhancement of quality of life (forms of well-being), which are inseparable from the continuous development of PV at the local level. The crucial inputs in respect of PV generation are (i) public engagement, (ii) open dialogue (discursive and deliberate discussion), (iii) effective civic education, (iv) information sharing and (v) effective feedback, employing positive and negative feedback loops (Uys and Jessa 2016 and 2017; Jessa and Uys 2018).

In the collaborative governance regime (CGR), Emersen and Nabatchi (2015:723) presents an integrated framework for operational and performance management and measurement (Figure 2), which demonstrates (i) three performance levels, (ii) three significant 'units of analysis' synchronised relative to collaborative governance practice, (iii) nine measures (KPIs) for utilisation in programmes and projects in respect of tangible and non- tangible PV generation and (iv) imbued potential for feedback by all stakeholders, in digital format. The CGR framework measures the qualitative and quantifiable aspects of locally based programmes and projects, from which a progress report on collaborative governance may be derived. The IPSS generating PV, which utilises the CGR 'integrative' framework for collaborative governance practice, embeds three essential dynamic elements, viz. principled engagement, shared trust (and understanding) and community enablement, i.e. "capacity for joint action" (Emersen, Nabatchi and Balogh 2011:101). Notwithstanding, (i) the easing of complexity, (ii) integration by network operativity and (iii) the exchanges between the spheres of government "in a non-bureaucratic context" (Jessa and Uys 2018:285) are important tasks. From the municipal perspective (their relationship with communities and other stakeholders in the generation of PV), collaborative governance cannot proceed without the effective monitoring of accountability, oversight and performance measurement.

6. Complexity in collaborative governance practice

Complexity science subsumes the IPSS elements listed in Figure 1, which may be utilised as measures for analytical inquiry into relative changes in network dynamics (successes and failures), evolving situations, situational advancements and adaptation to new emerging social and economic conditions. Mitleton-Kelly (2003:5) argues that complexity is not a set of tools or a methodology but rather a course of action and conceptual schema for understanding the unforeseeable. The complexity of collaborative governance is increased (or decreased) by the various institutional and organisational contexts in which it is applied. Four 'complexity' focal areas may be expounded:

6.1 Collaborative governance as a cognitive precondition

Collaborative governance demands that municipal officials, community leaders and stakeholders involved in local programmes and projects become cognitively aware of the importance collaborative behaviour, of all concerned. By implication, stakeholders need to embrace the ontological, axiological and epistemological perspectives and values of integrity, accountability, honesty, responsiveness, responsibility and commitment to social values, which

form part of an IPSS. Ansell and Gash (2007:544-545), hold that an IPSS framework for collaborative governance entails firstly, principled engagement, secondly, capacity of joint action and thirdly, outcomes of actions, impacts, adaptation and shared motivation. The axiology governing the mode of inter-operability of public institutions is shaped through education, training and practice in respect of broad collaborative governance institutionalisation and the reduction of indecision and uncertainty. Cooperation as a network demand, naturally (and theoretically) assumes dominance over individual and excessive government controls (Emerson, Nabatchi and Balogh 2011:10-15).

6.2 Institutional culture and current governance practice in municipalities

The 'institutional culture' interpretation calls for an awareness among officials of attitudes and behavioural patterns which strengthen internal power enclaves, silos, path dependency, authoritarianism and patronage. Complexity issues arise from the distance created by the institutional culture of municipalities and their stakeholders. Collaboration compels a path away from this mode of operation towards synchrony, harmony, holism and focus on immediate objectives which are in the public interest and in respect of the accomplishment of public purpose.

6.3 A systemic approach to collaborative governance aims to reduce complexity

The IPSS demands systemic transformation in municipalities as a precondition for effective network operativity which is essentially 'integration'. Stakeholders, including the municipality, are compelled to collaborate, cooperate and coordinate their 'agenda' in the interest of power sharing, knowledge management, capacity building, monitoring and evaluation. Collaborative governance contains the elements for the reduction of complexity in the interest of programme and project success, social well-being and progress, through the practice of (i) engagement (open discursive and deliberative dialogue), (ii) feedback to ensure accountability and (iii) opportunities for reflection, review and innovation.

Findings from the survey (Jessa 2017), where N = 43, indicate that:

- 39% of the respondents agreed that collaborative governance was a purely theoretical construct, while 61% disagreed.
- 83% of the respondents held firmly that collaborative governance had no impact without effective public engagement, while 17% did not.

- The open ended responses revealed that respondents were not opposed to greater collaboration and engagement with stakeholders but that the executive leadership in municipalities had to impart the authority for its implementation.

These findings indicate that the opportunity for systemic change in municipalities exists, i.e. the implementation of an IPSS generating PV, subject to the willingness of the executive leadership to sanction effective transformation. The top management structures in South African municipalities, however, show resistance to the systemic transformation approach to collaborative governance.

6.4 Collaborative governance evolves and matures over time

A relationship exists between the pace of change and the complex issues governing resistance to change, encountered in municipalities. It is logical to assume that officials need to 'mature' into the role of collaborator between stakeholders operating in a defined or distributive network (Baran 2003), illustrated in Figure 3.

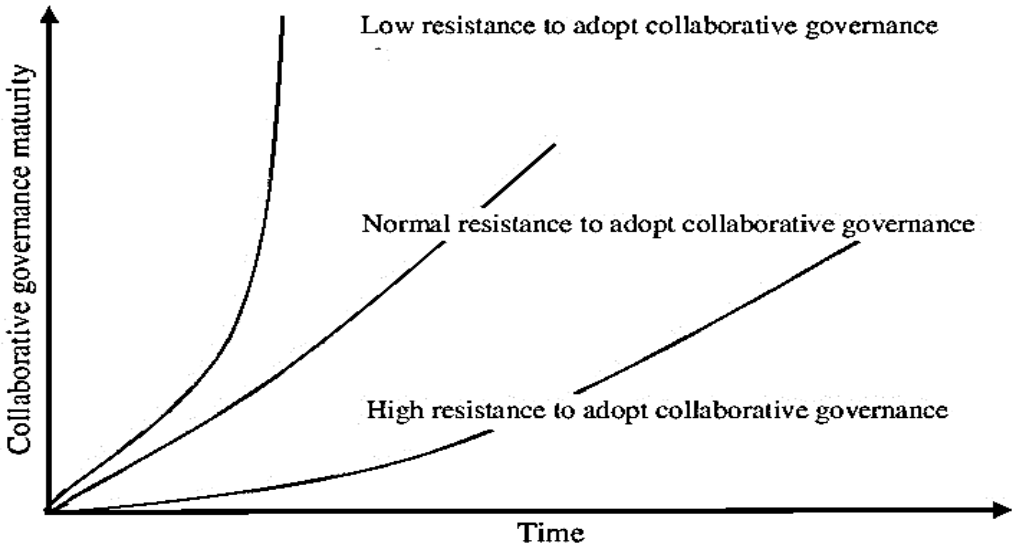

Figure 3: Maturity of collaborative governance practice over time
Source: Authors.

The pace at which municipal officials adopt collaborative governance, i.e. particularising a focus on effectiveness, accountability and partnering, is dependent upon a complex array of internal and external factors. Collaborative governance practice is best described as a continuum of experiential learning (co-learning) about how best to achieve commonalities with stakeholders who are eager to accomplish openness, accountability and inclusiveness.

Systemic transformation therefore relies upon change in cognitive and operational 'pragmatism' over time in respect of attaining higher levels of maturity for the successful adoption of collaborative governance (Figure 3 refers).

Findings from the survey (Jessa 2017), where N=43, indicate that:

- 91% of the respondents indicated that capacity building in collaborative governance practice was needed while 9% indicated that it was not.
- 55.9% of the respondents asserted that training in inter-departmental collaboration capacity building was 'most needed'. 38.7% regarded such training as 'needed' and 5.4% of the respondents held that such training was 'least' needed.
- 55.6% of the respondents asserted that training in external collaboration capacity building (for interaction with stakeholders) was 'most needed'. 35.7% regarded such training as 'needed' and 8.7% of the respondents held that such training was 'least' needed.

These findings indicate that the opportunity and willingness among senior managers for learning in collaborative governance and capacity building (co-learning) is a reality in municipalities, however not high enough. One may assert that the degree of complexity in the relationship between stakeholders and the municipality is linked to the pace of systemic transformation, notwithstanding the resistance encountered from the top management structures in this regard.

7 Imperatives for the implementation of collaborative governance

The actual implementation of collaborative governance justifies reflection on the strategic imperatives required in respect of (i) collaborative relationships with stakeholders, (ii) organisational stability, (iii) productivity and (iv) sustainability. Collaborative governance practice should also be seen as the conduit for connectivity with communities, in addressing their need for expression and validation of their (i) legislated role in municipal matters, e.g. to ensure that communities are included in the evaluation of local programmes and projects in accordance with the nine measures given in the CGR, Figure 2, (ii) joint local socio-economic objectives, e.g. the UN Agenda 2030 and (iii) engagement in civic education programmes for the generation of PV. Given the seven collaborative governance implementation imperatives outlined in this section, Figure 4 presents a logical arrangement for the facilitation of pragmatic and technical learning in respect of collaborative governance implementation. Figure 4 aids the understanding of the (i) elements for sustaining effectiveness, inclusiveness and accountability,

(ii) collaborative governance place in the macro, meso and micro development environments and (iii) collaborative governance role in relation to PV generation outputs, outcomes, adaptation and sustainability.

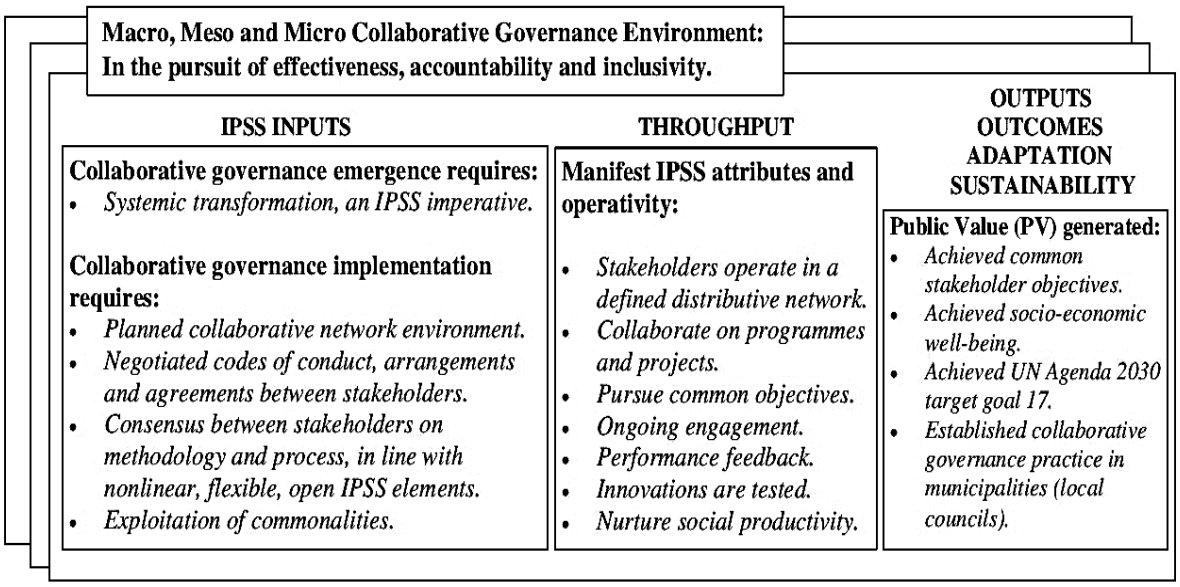

Figure 4: Logical outline of collaborative governance in relation to the spheres of government and PV generation (outputs, outcomes, adaptation and sustainability)
Source: Authors

- Community and stakeholder inclusion

Communities are legislated stakeholders in municipal matters and require training to build capacity in all matters of their functioning in the generation and measurement of PV, performance and social progress. It is important for municipal officials and community representatives to developing knowledge bases, i.e. to learn skills, trust, integrative leadership skills, open dialogue, stakeholder relationships and to place focus on adaptation and sustainable development (Winston and Patterson 2006:45). Noble and Letsky (2003:1-7) hold that the collaborative construction of indicators (KPIs), policy planning and monitoring and evaluation should include stakeholders; Stoker (2006:43; 2013:178) urge that municipalities adopt inclusive approaches that would stimulate the stakeholders' nonlinear environment, in initiating stakeholder interactivity in a collaborative network environment, an example of which is performance feedback, utilising e-governance (Figure 4 refers). Findings from the survey (Jessa 2017), where N = 49, indicate that 93% - 100% of the respondents agreed that stakeholder operativity in an IPSS nonlinear collaborative environment is required in municipalities. 87% of the respondents agreed that training in the effective use of a feedback

process was necessary. However, in the South African context, certain constraining factors exists which limit the full and effective implementation of collaborative governance.

8. Constraining factors relative to collaborative governance implementation

The following constraining factors relative to collaborative governance will focus on all IPSS activities during the PV generation process, i.e. evaluation (measurement) utilising IPSS elements (Figure 1) and feedback utilising e-government platforms and portals. The following data from questionnaires and open ended questions was selected from the study on the IPSS and PV generation (Jessa 2017).

In respect of 'systemic' transformation effectiveness, the data collected from the survey conducted at 15 municipalities in the Western Cape Province, South Africa, indicate that 88% (where N=43) of the respondents agreed to systemic change; however, change as not supported by the municipal executive leadership. Current managerial practice, attitudes and behaviours in municipalities in South Africa are geared to (i) resist change, (ii) resist trust building with stakeholders operating in networks, (iii) retain silo structures and (iv) excessive hierarchical controls which serve to balk the effective implementation of collaborative governance in respect of programme and projects at the local level. Governance practice (which according to IPSS principles should hold strong bonds with monitoring and evaluation) regarding programmes and projects are departmentalised in South African municipalities, each department having governance and monitoring and evaluation instruments applicable specifically to their (silo) functions. Findings from the survey indicate that the respondents held the following opinions based on their experience:

- 53% held that collaboration is understood by senior managers.
- 36% held that co-management (inter-departmental management with stakeholders) was most needed, 42% held that it was needed and 22% held that it was 'least' needed.
- 17% (as significant among senior managers) held that monitoring and evaluation of locally based programmes and projects were not required as a measure of good governance.

These results contribute to the assertion that inter-departmental relations dampen collaborative relations internally and externally. The quality of public engagement, with open dialogue and as a municipal responsibility, requires examination as it is barely subjected to monitoring and evaluation in the 15 municipalities. Municipal executive teams and senior managers are required to build capacity internally and externally regarding the holistic development,

‘adaptation’ and ‘sustainability’ in order to facilitate close ties between them and stakeholders. In South Africa this aspect of collaboration is lacking, as it pertains to community and stakeholder involvement in strategy (and policy) formulation, monitoring and evaluation and project and programme sustainability. Complexities of this nature occur in municipalities as the system of supporting hierarchy is fundamentally different from open nonlinear systems (Ananda and Proctor, 2012:105; Vigoda-Gadot 2003:19-20 and Battistella and Chester 1973: 495, 498, 512, 523).

Linked to the above constraining factors regarding programmes and projects at local level in the 15 municipalities surveyed, are:

- The negative impact of poor governance and monitoring and evaluation on outputs, outcomes, adaptation, sustainability effectiveness, i.e. PV generated (findings given in paragraph two in this section).
- The absence of effective community participation and open engagement; 73% of the respondents hold that dialogue with communities requires a renewed focus.
- The absence of feedback regarding reflection, reporting and redirection, where survey results are split, where 44% of the respondents claim that basic infrastructure is not made available to stakeholders and 56% claim that it is. However, in another item, 54% of the respondents claim that senior managers must pay more attention to the feedback process.
- In relation to administrative ‘distance’ from the planners in the IDP and Planning Departments, here too the survey results are split, where 49% of the respondents claim that administrative distance between the municipality and stakeholders is large and 51% claim that it is not the case.
- The absence of effective acknowledgement of the common objectives of communities via open and transparent processes is held by 45% of the respondents.

In addition, the following constraints hold significance to effective, inclusive and accountable governance in respect of PV generation. The need for the innovative implementation of an IPSS, i.e. ‘systemic’ transformation effectiveness in municipalities, is given by the finding that municipalities and metros in South Africa attempt to combine hierarchy and open ‘democratic’ systems, in contradiction to the IPSS elements stated in Figure 1. There is also a need for effective emphasis on community (stakeholder) common objectives related to social well-being with 81% of the respondents supporting this need; however 75% hold that indicators for its development does not exist in municipalities; 90% of the respondents are of the view that

wellbeing in communities must be prioritised. Trust (and relationship) building, training and sustainability in municipalities between all stakeholders is important, as 86% -100% of the respondents agreed. In order to facilitate trust and relationship building, 83% of the respondents believe that training in the enablement of stakeholder relations with the municipality is hugely necessary to restrain the power distances between them and communities, as it inhibits an open exchange of dialogue. The absence of processes involving community 'civic' education is perhaps revealing of the municipality's inconclusiveness for transparency, effectiveness, accountability and inclusivity. In relation to the initiation of civic education, the survey results shows a split in opinion, where 56% of the respondents claim that they 'always' and 'sometimes' engage in 'education' exercises with community leaders and 44% hold that they did not engage in civic education.

9 Galvanising factors relative to collaborative governance in municipalities

The PV approach to collaborative governance, based on the IPSS elements given in Figure 1, allows for a benchmark from which to purvey the galvanising factors associated with collaborative governance utilisation in municipalities. Presently municipalities in South Africa employ combined aspects of corporate, cooperative and 'good' governance forms, which support the municipal structural-functionalist inward focus implying that a paradigm shift to collaborative governance is required for the incorporation of stakeholders in the generation of PV. Taken from the survey (Jessa 2017), senior managers' opinions on collaborative governance serve as an entry point for the initiation of collaborative governance for generating PV in municipalities. Respondents revealed their readiness to support (i) greater emphasis on integration and community objectives necessary for effective public participation, since 67% believed that their municipality was inwardly focused, (ii) collaboration with stakeholders in order to advance the budgeting process, i.e. resources utilisation and exchange of information and knowledge, (iii) much needed e-government infrastructure for effective e-governance. Readiness in this regard, implied the need for system and operational transformation. Respondents in 15 municipalities also attributed significance to the following factors, ranked in order of importance; (i) 91% believed that capacity building in collaborative governance was important, (ii) 86% supported a participatory operating mode, i.e. community engagement as crucial to their work in housing and community services, (iii) 85% of the respondents supported building trust, open, accountable and transparent relationships between stakeholders and (iv) 73% – 76% of the respondents held that cooperation, coordination and collaboration between officials and between stakeholders and officials in respect of achieving accountability and

openness, would be achieved through co-management and integrated strategies with stakeholders.

10. Conclusion

This paper addressed a PV approach to collaborative governance implementation in South African municipalities from both the IPSS and PV theoretical and operational perspectives. In particular, the paper highlights the role of the CGR as an integrated framework for operational and performance management and measurement, the importance of the UN Agenda 2030 as a basis for commonalities between stakeholders and municipalities and important survey results obtained which are supportive of collaboration between IPSS stakeholders and collaborative governance in municipalities. Continuous PV generation is the tangible and nontangible outputs, outcomes, adaptation and sustainability of non-finite products and services generated by an IPSS. The entire collaborative system is dependent on the democratic values given in Figure 1, the CGR in Figure 2, the collaborative governance maturity trajectory in Figure 3 and the epistemological underpinnings of collaboration in an IPSS given in Figure 4. The IPSS subsists as a nonlinear, networked system, from which it derives integration and municipal transformation precepts. The paper holds the position that inwardly focused municipalities requires a shift from the current governance practice in the pursuit of collaborative governance practices, in order to demonstrate an integrated operational and performance modus operandi for PV generation. The paper also place emphasis on complexity issues in collaborative governance and provides insight into some of the constraining and galvanising factors for the successful utilisation of collaborative governance in municipal management, i.e. effectiveness, accountability and inclusiveness of all stakeholders involved in a development agenda.

References

Ananda, J. and Proctor, W. 2012. Collaborative Approaches to Water Management and Planning: An Institutional Perspective. *Ecological Economics*. 86:97-106.

Ansell, C. and Gash, A. (2007). Collaborative Governance in Theory and Practice. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*. 8:543-571.

Barabási, A-L. and Frangos, J. 2002. *Linked. The New Science of Networks*. Perseus Publishing. New York. USA.

Baran, P. 2003. The Origins of the Internet. https://www.rand.org/about/history/baran.html.

Barsh, J. 2008. Innovative management: A conversation with Gary Hamel and Lowell Bryan. Strategy.1. *The Mc Kinsey Quarterly*.

Bartels, K. P. R. 2018. Collaborative dynamics in street level work: Working in and with communities to improve relationships and reduce deprivation. *Environment and Planning C: Politics and Space.* 36(7):1319–1337. Sage Publication.

Battistella, R. M. and Chester, T. E. 1973. Reorganization of the National Health Service: Background and Issues in England's Quest for a Comprehensive-Integrated Planning and Delivery System. *The Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly. Health and Society*. Wiley Publishers. 51(4):489-530. http://www.jstor.org/stable/3349631. Accessed 22 June 2014.

Bertalanffy (Von), L. 1968. *General System Theory. Foundations, Development, Applications*. George Braziller, lnc. Publishers. New York, N.Y. USA.

Best, A. Greenhalgh, T. Lewis, S. Saul, J. E. Carroll, S. and Bitz, J. 2012. Large-System Transformation in Health Care: A Realist Review. *The Milbank Quarterly*. Published by Wiley Periodicals Inc. 90(3):421-456.

Blaug, R. Horner, L. and Lekhi, R. 2006. Public Value, Politics and Public Management. A Literature Review. The Work Foundation Alliance Ltd. Lancaster University. London. UK.

Bozeman, B. 2007. *Public Values and Public Interest. Counterbalancing economic individualism*. Georgetown University Press. Washington D C. USA.

Bozeman, B. 2009. Pubic Value Mapping of Science Outcomes: Theory and Method. Centre for Science, Policy, and Outcomes. A Project of Columbia University Washington DC and School of Public Policy Georgia Tech Atlanta. Georgia. USA.

Bozeman, B. and Johnson, J. 2015. The Political Economy of Public Values: A Case for the Public Sphere and Progressive Opportunity. *American Review of Public Administration*. Sage Publication. 45(1):61-85.

Bozeman, B. and Sarewitz, D. 2005. Public values and public failure in US science policy. *Science and Public Policy.* Beech Tree Publishing. Surrey. UK. 32(2):119-136.

Brown, S. E. and Lerch, D. C. 2007. Systems Thinking: A Tool for Municipalities. http://www.postcarboncities.net. Accessed: 17 July 2013.

Burt, R. S. 1992. *Structural Holes: The Social Structure of Competition*. Harvard University Press. Cambridge. MA. USA.

Davis, C. and Nikolic, I. 2008. Environmental Applications of Information and Communication Technology. Industrial Ecology 2.0. 14(5).

Emersen, K. Nabatchi, T. and Balogh, S. 2011. An Integrative Framework for Collaborative Governance. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory Advance Access.*

Emerson, K. and Nabatchi, T. 2015. Evaluating the Productivity of Collaborative Governance Regimes: A Performance Matrix. *Public Performance & Management Review.* Taylor & Francis Group. 38:717–747.

Fenwick, T. 2011. Reading Educational Reform with Actor Network Theory: Fluid spaces, otherings, and ambivalences. Educational Philosophy and Theory. University of British Columbia. Canada. 43 (S1).

Ghoshal, S. 2005. Bad Management Theories are Destroying Good Management Practices. Academy of Management Learning and Education. 4:75-91.

Granovetter, M. 1983. The Strength of Weak Ties: A Network Theory Revisited. *Sociological Theory*. Wiley Stable Publication. http://www.jstor.org/stable/202051. 1:201-233. Accessed 10 December 2013.

Grollman, E. A. 2012. The Importance of Representation: Voice, Visibility and Validation in America. https://egrollman.com/2012/09/24/representation/

Jessa, F. 2017. Survey (July – November 2017). Chapter 6 in PhD dissertation. Stellenbosch University. Stellenbosch. Western Cape Province. South Africa.

Jessa, F. and Uys, F. M. 2018. Public Value Generation: The Outcome of an Integrated Public Service System. *Administratio Publica*. 26(1):277-305.

Klijn, E-H. 2003. Networks and Governance: A perspective on public policy and public administration. *Governing Networks.* IOS Press.

Latour, B. 1996. On Actor-Network Theory. A few clarifications plus more than a few complications. *Soziale Welt.* CSI-Paris/Science Studies-San Diego. 47:369-381.

Meynhardt, T. 2009. Public Value Inside: What is Public Value Creation? *International Journal of Public Administration*. Routledge Taylor and Francis Group. 32(3-4): 192-219.

Mintzberg, H. 1983. *Structure in Fives: Designing Effective Organizations*. Prentice Hall. Pearson Education. New Jersey. USA.

Mintzberg, H. 1996. Managing Government, Governing Management. Harvard Business Review. May-June 1996:73-83. Boston. MA. USA.

Mitleton-Kelly, E. 2003. *Complex systems and evolutionary perspectives on organisations: the application of complexity theory to organisations.* Advanced series in Management. Elsevier Science Ltd. Oxford. UK.

Moore, M. H. 1995. *Creating Public Value: Strategic Management in Government.* Harvard University Press. Cambridge, Massachusetts, London UK.

Moore, M. H. 2003. The Public Value Scorecard: A Rejoinder and an Alternative to "Strategic Performance Measurement and Management in Non-Profit Organizations" by Robert Kaplan. Working Paper 18. John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University. MA. USA.

Moore, M. H. 2012. *Recognizing Public Value: Developing a Public Value Account and a Public Value Scorecard*. John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University. Cambridge, MA. USA.

Moore, M. H. and Khagram, S. 2004. On Creating Public Value. What Business Might Learn from Government about Strategic Management. Working Paper No. 3. John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University. Cambridge, MA. USA.

Moore, M, H. and Benington, J. 2010. *Public Value. Theory and Practice*. Palgrave Macmillan International Higher Education. London, UK.

Nabatchi, T. 2017, Four Frames for Understanding Public Values in Administration and Governance. *Perspectives on Public Management and Governance*. 1 (1):59-72.

Nealer, E. J. and Naude, M. 2011. Integrated co-operative governance in the context of sustainable development. *The Journal for Transdisciplinary Research in Southern Africa.* 7 (1):105-118.

Noble, D. and Letsky, M. (2003). Cognitive-Based Metrics to Evaluate Collaboration Effectiveness. 47.

O'Leary, R, Gerard, C. Keast, R. Mandell, M. P. and Voets, J.2015. Collaboration and Performance. Introduction to Symposium on Collaboration. *Public Performance and Management Review*. 38:573-577.

O' Leary, R. and Vij, N. 2012. Collaborative Public Management: Where Have We Been and Where Are We Going? *The American Review of Public Administration*. 42(5):507-522.

Prigogine, I. and Stengers, I. 1984. *Order out of Chaos: Man's New Dialogue with Nature*. Bantam Books, Inc. USA and Canada.

Provan, K. G. and Milward, H. B. 1995. A Preliminary Theory of Interorganizational Network Effectiveness: A Comparative Study of Four Community Mental Health Systems. *Administrative Science Quarterly*. Cornell University. NY.USA. 40:1-33.

Scott, J. 2000. *Social Network Analysis: A Handbook*. Sage Publications. London. UK.

Stoker, G. 1998. Governance as theory: five propositions. Unesco 1998. Blackwell Publishers.

Stoker, G. 2006. Public Value Management. A New Narrative for Networked Governance? *American Review of Public Administration*. Sage Publications. 36(1):41-57. http://arp.sagepub.com. Accessed 3 February 2015.

Stoker, G. 2013. Designing Politics: A Neglected Justification for Political Science. *Political Studies Review*. 11(2):174 – 181.

Talbot, C. 2008. Measuring Public Value. A competing values approach. A paper for The Work Foundation Alliance Ltd. Lancaster University. London. UK.

United Nations Sustainable Development Goal No. 17. Goal 17: Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development. https://www.un.org/development/desa/disabilities/envision2030-goal17.html.

Uys, F. M. and Jessa, F. 2016. An Integrated Public Service System (IPSS) Utilising Complexity and Network Theory in The Enhancement of Public Value. *Administratio Publica*. 24(1):183-209.

Uys, F. M. and Jessa, F. 2017. Network Theory: The Bricks and Mortar of Integrated Public Service Systems (IPSSs). *Administratio Publica*. 26(1):277-305.

Vigoda-Gadot, E. 2003. *Managing Collaboration in Public Administration. The Promise of Alliance among Governance, Citizens and Business*. Praeger Publishers. Westport, Connecticut, USA.

Winston, B. E. and Patterson, K. 2006. An Integrative Definition of Leadership. *International Journal of International Studies. 1(2):6-66.*